DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 322 225 UD 026 838

AUTHOR	Gonzales, Frank
TITLE	First and Second Language Acquisition Process. Training Module I.
INSTITUTION	Desegregation Assistance Center - South Central Collaborative of Region VI, San Antonio, TX.; Intercultural Development Research Association, San Antonio, Tex.
SPONS AGENCY	Department of Education, Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	88
GRANT	G00-874-5255
NOTE	64p.; For related documents, see UD 026 839-849.
AVAILABLE FROM	Intercultural Development Research Association, 5835 Callaghan Road, Suite 350, San Antonio, TX 78228 ($7.50; complete set of 12 modules, $75.00).
PUB TYPE	Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	*Bilingualism; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); English Instruction; *Language Acquisition; *Language Skills; Learning Modules; Limited English Speaking; Non English Speaking; *Second Language Learning; Teacher Education
IDENTIFIERS	National Origin Desegregation Assistance Centers

ABSTRACT

The process of first and second language acquisition is the subject of this training module. It guides trainers through the activities and lessons necessary to familiarize administrators, teachers and other school staff with the processes a non-English speaking student goes through during the acquisition of English as a Second Language. Nine activities are described and materials, including nine transparency masters and four handouts, are contained within the module. A background reading assignment for presenters consists of a chapter from "Bilingual Education: A Sourcebook" (Alba Ambert, Sarah Melendez). Goals for the participants are the following: (1) to become familiar with the nature of language and language proficiency; (2) to become familiar with the processes for acquiring the first and second languages and the interrelationship between the two; (3) to become familiar with the English-as-a-Second-Language categories; and (4) to acquire strategies for placing limited English proficient students in the appropriate level and program of instruction. The suggested time for completion of the module is 3 hours. Eight more training modules and three technical assistance modules related to desegregation and equity are available. (VM)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

6/7/89

SCOPE OF INTEREST NOTICE

The ERIC Facility has assigned this document for processing to: UD

In our judgment, this document is also of interest to the Clearinghouses noted to the right. Indexing should reflect their special points of view. FL

ED322225

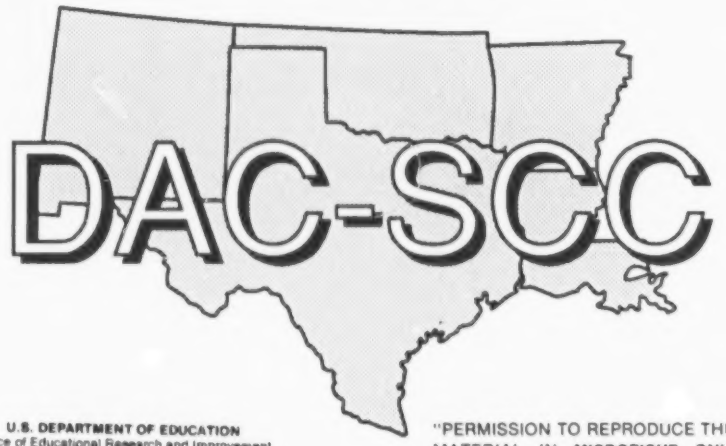
•••

TRAINING MODULE I

•••

First and Second Language Acquisition Processes

•••



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Jose Cardenas
IDRA

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

•••

Desegregation Assistance Center - South Central Collaborative

Intercultural Development Research Association
5835 Callaghan Rd. • Suite 350 • San Antonio, TX 78228

UD 026 838

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

INTERCULTURAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH ASSOCIATION

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

CHAIRMAN OF THE BOARD
Mr. Jesse Treviño
McAllen, Texas

VICE CHAIRPERSON
Mrs. Jan Coggeshall
Galveston, Texas

SECRETARY
Mrs. Debbie Haley
Houston, Texas

Dr. Sally J. Andrade
Austin, Texas

Dr. Max Castillo
San Antonio, Texas

Dr. James A. Forester
San Antonio, Texas

Mr. José A. Gonzales
Ft. Worth, Texas

Mr. Tino Guerra, Jr.
San Antonio, Texas

Mr. James Lehmann
Seguin, Texas

Mr. Othon Medina
El Paso, Texas

Mr. Fernando Piñon
San Antonio, Texas

Mr. Jesse Rangel
Lubbock, Texas

Mr. William Sinkin
San Antonio, Texas

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
Dr. José A. Cárdenas

IDRA is a non-profit corporation chartered by the State of Texas and dedicated to the improvement of educational opportunities for children.

Training Module I: National Origin Desegregation

First and Second Language Acquisition Processes

Developed by
Frank Gonzales, Ph.D.

Desegregation Assistance Center - South Central Collaborative
Gloria Zamora, Ph.D., Director

Intercultural Development Research Association
5835 Callaghan Road, Suite 350
San Antonio, Texas 78228
(512) 684-8180
Dr. Jose A. Cardenas, Executive Director

1988

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Appreciation is expressed to Dr. Arcadia Lopez for her editorial assistance and to Elsa M. Weiderhold and Carl Gonzales for their production assistance.

Appreciation is also expressed to the following individuals for their critical review of this document.

Van Anderson
Oklahoma State Department of Education

Dr. Domingo Dominguez
Texas Education Agency

Raul Font
Oklahoma State Department of Education

Cheryl Huffman
Oklahoma State Department of Education

Joe Gonzales
Multicultural Education Center, University of New Mexico

Dr. Norma Hernandez
Louisiana State Department of Education

Craig Wilson
Fort Smith, Arkansas, Public Schools

This module was prepared with funds provided under Title IV, Section 403, grant number G00-874-5255, U.S. Department of Education. The opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the Department of Education and no official endorsement by the department should be inferred. All portions of this document may be reproduced with appropriate citation.

Table of Contents

Summary/Objectives.....2

Overview of Session.....3

Warm-up.....4

Pre/Post-Test.....5

Objective 1.....7

Objective 2.....10

Objective 3.....12

Objective 4.....13

Closure.....14

Transparency Masters.....16

Handout Masters.....25

Background Readings for Presenters.....Appendix

First and Second Language Acquisition Processes

Summary: This module will familiarize participants with the processes a non-English-speaking student goes through as he/she acquires English as a second language.

Length of session: 3 hours

Objectives:

1. Participants will become familiar with the nature of language and language proficiency.

2. Participants will become familiar with the processes for acquiring the first and second languages and the interrelationship between the two.

3. Participants will become familiar with the English-as-a-second-language (ESL) categories.

4. Participants will acquire strategies for placing limited English proficient (LEP) students in the appropriate level and program of instruction.

Overview of Session:

Time	Objective	Activity	Materials
15 minutes		Warm-up	Handout 1
10 minutes		Pre-test (optional)	Pre-test
30 minutes	Objective 1	Lecturette/ discussion	Transparencies (1-8) Handout 2
30 minutes	Objective 2	Lecturette/ discussion	
15 minutes		Break	
30 minutes	Objective 3	Lecturette	Transparency 9
30 minutes	Objective 4	Small group activity	Handout 3
10 minutes		Post-test (optional)	Post-test
5 minutes		Closure	Handout 4
5 minutes		Evaluation	

Background reading for the presenter:

Ambert, Alba N., & Melendez, Sarah E. Bilingual Education: A Sourcebook. New York: Teachers College Press, 1987. Pp. 49-65.

Warm-up

Time: 15 minutes

Materials:

Handout 1. The Test of Everyday English

Process:

Distribute Handout 1 and explain that native speakers of English should do well on a test of everday English. Allow time for participants to write the answers.

Ask for a show of hands of everyone who responded to all 10 questions. (9,8,7,6,5, etc. Do not embarrass anyone but point out that English speakers should do well on an English language test.)

Ask participants to provide the correct answers to the group. Check their responses with the answer key.

Answer Key:

1. scattered showers
2. side by side
3. scrambled eggs
4. backward glance
5. 3 degrees below zero
6. split level
7. 6 feet underground
8. down town
9. neon light
10. reading between the lines

Explain that language is complicated. Although a person may have command of a language, there are some tasks within the language that are difficult.If native speakers have difficulty with English, how must non-English speakers feel when they are confronted with a school situation where English is the vehicle of communication?

Allow time for participants to respond.

Pre/Post-test (optional)

Time: 10 minutes

Materials:

Pre/Post-test

Administer the pre-test to the participants. Provide the correct responses from the answer key below.

Answer Key

1.	2 years	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) are acquired within a two year period.
2.	5-7 years	Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) requires a longer period of time, depending on the level of development in the primary language.
3.	False	Language interference has little effect on language learning.
4.	True	The rate of learning depends on the level of comprehensible input.
5.	False	Most errors are due to natural developmental processes in the acquisition of language.
6.	True	Same as above.
7.	False	Constant correction often stifles the desire to learn a language.
8.	False	Functioning productively in society is not measured by one's ability to speak a language or conform to norms.
9.	False	Learning can and does occur in any language.
10.	True	The level of language interaction with parents, teachers, and other adults is more important than which language is used.

Pre/Post-Test

Name: _____ Date: _____

1. The average non-English speaker can acquire enough language skills to communicate with his/her peers in _____ year(s).

2. The average non-English speaker usually requires _____ years to acquire enough language skills for academic tasks.

Identify the following statements as true or false.

True False 3. All Spanish-speaking students will experience problems in learning certain English sounds, words, or grammatical structures (Example: ch>sh, prepositions - in>on).

True False 4. Learning for limited English proficient (LEP) students occurs first when the material is predictable and the meaning is apparent.

True False 5. Approximately 50% of the errors that LEP students make while learning a second language are due to negative interference from their first language.

True False 6. Most of the errors that LEP students make are developmental -- the same types of errors as those made by children learning English as a first language.

True False 7. The best way for a student to acquire standard English is through constant correction whenever mistakes occur.

True False 8. The school should teach students to conform to Anglo norms and learn standard English in order to function productively in society.

True False 9. A home language other than English is an impediment to learning.

True False 10. The quality of interaction that LEP students experience with adults is more important for academic success than which language is used.

Objective 1: Participants will become familiar with the nature of language and language proficiency.

Time: 30 minutes

Materials:

Transparencies:

1. Language Is Universal
2. Definition of Language
3. All languages Are Systematic
4. Language Acquisition Requires Social Interaction
5. Language Is Related to Concept Development
6. The Two Dimensions of Language/BICS-CALP
7. Language Proficiency -- SUP - CUP Models
8. The "Dual-Iceberg" Representation of Bilingual Proficieny

Handout:

2. Stages of Language Acquistion

Lecturette:

(Display Trar. arency 1)

All normal people speak a language. No group of people has ever been identified that did not have a language system, and children have an inherent (genetic) disposition to learn language. An example of this is the case of a set of twins kept in isolation who, with no verbal stimulation from their mother, developed a language system of their own that communicated their needs very well.

(Display Transparency 2)

Language is defined as "a set of arbitrary symbols (words) which are placed in an orderly relationship with one another according to conventions accepted and understood by the speakers, for the transmission of messages" (Girsdansky, 1963). Studies with chimpanzees have demonstrated that symbols and signs can be used to communicate messages when they are placed in an orderly relationship with one another.

(Display Transparency 3)

All languages are systematic. Each has a sound system (phonology); a word-forming system (morphology); a phrase and sentence forming system (syntax); and a vocabulary (lexicon). To acquire a language requires competent use of these systems.

(Display Transparency 4)

Language acquisition requires social interaction. The development of communicative competence is dependent upon meaningful interaction with other speakers of that language. Therefore, acquiring a language requires the opportunity to use it in meaningful context.

(Display Transparency 5)

Language is related to concept development. The language acquisition process for native English speakers may require from 10 to 11 years for the normal individual. Piaget and other developmentalists have shown that mental processes and their development are directly linked to the development of language processes.

(Distribute Handout 2)

(Use Transparency 5 to explain the stages of language acquisition. Begin at the bottom and work upward.)

(Display Transparency 6)

A person's proficiency in a language refers to the degree to which that person is able to use the language. Language is used for various purposes. In education we can classify the uses of language into two dimensions: the social dimension and the academic dimension (Cummins, 1981). We can compare language to an iceberg. The portion that is visible on the surface is only a fraction of the total iceberg. In order to use a language correctly, the speaker must have an extensive foundation (mental processes) related to the language. This foundation is acquired through using the language over an extensive period of time.

Cummins refers to the skills necessary for social interactions involving language as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS). They involve listening comprehension and speaking skills sufficient to understand and respond to social interactions. They usually are acquired within two years of using the language.

BICS can be compared to the visible portion of an iceberg. They demonstrate the learner's ability to understand and use spoken language appropriately. Most non-native English speakers acquire sufficient BICS in English within a two-year period to meet their needs in social situations.

Cummins refers to the language skills necessary to function in an academic situation as Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). These skills encompass listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities. They require from 5 to 7 years to acquire, and can be compared to the portion of an iceberg that is not visible (under the surface of the ocean). CALP refers to all experiences associated with language, both concept development and linguistic development.

(Display Transparency 7)

For many years educators thought that different languages were learned in different parts of the brain. The SUP model contended that each language had a separate underlying proficiency. Information learned in one language would use up space in the brain and not allow a person to develop a second language properly. This theory advocated instruction in English for non-English speakers in a "sink or swim" environment. The results were devastating. Non-English speakers fell two or more years behind the monolingual English speaker.

The Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) model is supported by current brain research. By injecting chemicals into the bloodstream and using sophisticated photography, medical science has shown that learning that takes place in one area of the brain involves other regions of the brain.

> Scientists used to think that the left hemisphere of the brain specialized in language ability and the right hemisphere determined spatial perception. Their latest experiments are much less conclusive about how the brain divides up mental tasks. When volunteers were asked to speak out loud, more blood flowed to their left hemispheres, indicating the expected surge of activity there. But the right side lit up, too. Then the volunteers were asked to perform such spatial tasks as determining the angle of a line by comparing it to a chart. Again both hemispheres lit up, although the right was more active. "A lot of old theories about right brain and left brain are nonsense," concludes Daniel Weinberger of the National Institute of Mental Health. "Things are not as localized as we thought."
> (Newsweek, February 7, 1983)

The CUP model states that concepts learned in one language can be expressed in another language because there is an underlying academic proficiency which is common across languages. This common underlying proficiency allows the person to transfer cognitive or literacy skills across languages.

(Display Transparency 8)

Sources:

Moskowitz, Arlene. "The Acquisition of Language." Scientific American. November 1978.

Troike, Rudolph C. "Research on Bilingual Education" Educational Leadership, March 1981.

"How the Brain Works", Newsweek, February 7, 1983.

Objective 2: Participants will understand the process of second language acquisition.

Time: 30 minutes

Materials:

None

Lecturette:

It is thought that children acquire a second language in much the same way they do the first. That is, they must have opportunities to hear the second language in meaningful and understandable contexts. They must not be pushed to produce language. Rather, young learners of a new language pass through stages that include a silent period during which time they are building their receptive language competence by listening. The silent period for very young children may extend to several months, although there is much variability here. The important thing is to continue to provide comprehensible input in the second language in a low-anxiety setting (Krashen, 1981). When the children are ready to talk, they will.

As children gain confidence to enter the expressive language (speaking) phase, many opportunities should be provided to produce the second language successfully. Children will be motivated to produce the second language with confidence and will develop a positive self-concept associated with second language production. They will want to speak English! LEP children can be introduced to English from the very first day of school.

The four communication skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing can be taught through English-as-a-second-language (ESL) strategies. Because of the developmental nature of language acquisition, teachers should focus initially on helping 4- and 5-year-old children develop their listening and speaking skills in their second language.

Remember that the spoken form of language is primary; we speak a language long before we read it. Only after the child demonstrates communicative competence in English will you begin to add reading and writing skills.

ESL is most effective when it is tied to meaningful content and is activity-oriented. The ESL teacher should provide "comprehensible input" in a low-anxiety setting (Krashen, 1981), and should avoid both grammar-based and audio-lingual approaches, which are ineffective for helping young children acquire English.

Krashen (1981) makes an important distinction between language learning and language acquisition. Language acquisition is a natural process in which learners use the second language in such a meaningful way that they are hardly conscious of it. Language learning, on the other hand, involves focusing on the elements of language: grammar, sounds, rules, and error correction. The latter process is not an effective way for young children to acquire a new language.

Older children and young adults may acquire a second language through a slightly different process. Older learners usually will have developed BICS and CALP in their first language. If a concept has already been learned in the first language, all that is necessary for the learner to transfer that information into the second language is the proper labels (vocabulary), the correct word order (syntax), and the way words are formed (morphology) after they master the sounds of the language (phonology).

Children can learn a second language accent-free. However, after puberty, most learners of a second language will have an accent to some degree.

Source:
Zamora, Gloria R. Springboards to Teaching. DLM Teaching Resources, 1987.

Break

Time: 15 minutes

Objective 3: Participants will become familiar with the English-as-a-second-language (ESL) categories.

Time: 30 minutes

Materials:

Transparency 9. ESL Student Categories

Lecturette:

Most English language proficiency tests will determine the students' level of proficiency in basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) by classifying the student as a beginning, intermediate, or advanced English speaker. The main purpose of a proficiency test is to determine whether a student is a limited English proficient (LEP) student. The first step is to identify the student.

The second step is to prescribe an appropriate instructional program. The purpose of an ESL program is to provide the student sufficient English language skills to function at grade level in an all-English instructional program.

Students learn a language at different rates of speed, depending on motivation, amount of exposure to the language, and cognitive ability.

(Display Transparency 9)

The following ESL student categories are used in Texas to categorize students for instructional purposes.

ESL 1 Students who are monolingual speakers of other languages and are considered beginning English speakers.

ESL 2 Students who have some oral English skills at the intermediate level, and who score below the 23rd percentile at grades 2 through 12 on a state-approved standardized achievement test.

ESL 3 Students who have scored at a level to be considered orally proficient in English, but score between the 23rd and 40th percentile at grades 2 through 12 on a state-approved standardized achievement test.

ESL 4 Students who are enrolling beyond grade one without previous schooling.

Note: Some states may use different percentile cut-off scores for classification of ESL 3 students.
Some states may not categorize students as ESL 4.

Objective 4: Participants will acquire strategies for placing limited English proficient (LEP) students in the appropriate level of ESL instruction.

Time: 30 minutes

Materials:

Handout 3. ESL Categories

Process:

Distribute Handout 3 and have participants categorize each student. Participants may want to work in small groups.

Have groups determine the type of instructional program that would be appropriate for each student.

Answers to the task sheet.

1. ESL 1
2. ESL 3
3. ESL 2
4. ESL 4
5. ESL 2
6. ESL 3
7. ESL 1

Post-test (optional)

Time: 10 minutes:

Materials:
Post-test

Administer the post-test and clarify any misunderstandings the participants may have. Answers and responses are provided on the Answer Key.

Closure

Time: 5 minutes

Materials:

Handout 4. Important Considerations in Choosing the Language of Instruction

Process:

Distribute Handout 4 and explain that language acquisition is a systematic and creative process. Review the following points.

Review orally:

1. Either language is capable of promoting the proficiency required for academic tasks.

2. The important variable is the quality of interaction that children experience with adults.

3. The native language is the means through which communicative proficiency is developed and underlies both the first and the second language.

4. Literacy skills transfer from the first to the second language.

5. Students are alienated if their language skills are demeaned.

6. Peer-appropriate communication is achieved within two years.

7. It takes five to seven years to achieve English proficiency for academic tasks.

8. Children should not be exited prematurely from ESL/BE programs.

9. The school should in every case build on, not replace, the entry characteristics of the child.

Source:
Cummins, Jim. "Four Misconceptions about Language Proficiency in Bilingual Children." Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education. 5(3) (Spring 1981), 31-45.

Evaluation

Time: 5 minutes:

Distribute the evaluation forms and have the participants complete them.

LANGUAGE IS UNIVERSAL

- **All normal people speak a language. No group of people has ever been discovered that did not have a language system.**

- **Children have an inherent (genetic) predisposition to learn language.**

Zamora, 1987

DEFINITION OF LANGUAGE

Language is... "a set of arbitrary symbols (words) which are placed in an orderly relationship with one another according to conventions accepted and understood by the speakers, for the transmission of messages"

Girsdansky, 1963

ALL LANGUAGES ARE SYSTEMATIC

Every language has:

- **a sound system (phonology);**
- **a word-forming system (morphology);**
- **a phrase and sentence forming system (syntax); and**
- **a vocabulary (lexicon).**

Acquiring a language involves competent use of these systems.

Zamora, 1987

LANGUAGE ACQUISITION REQUIRES SOCIAL INTERACTION

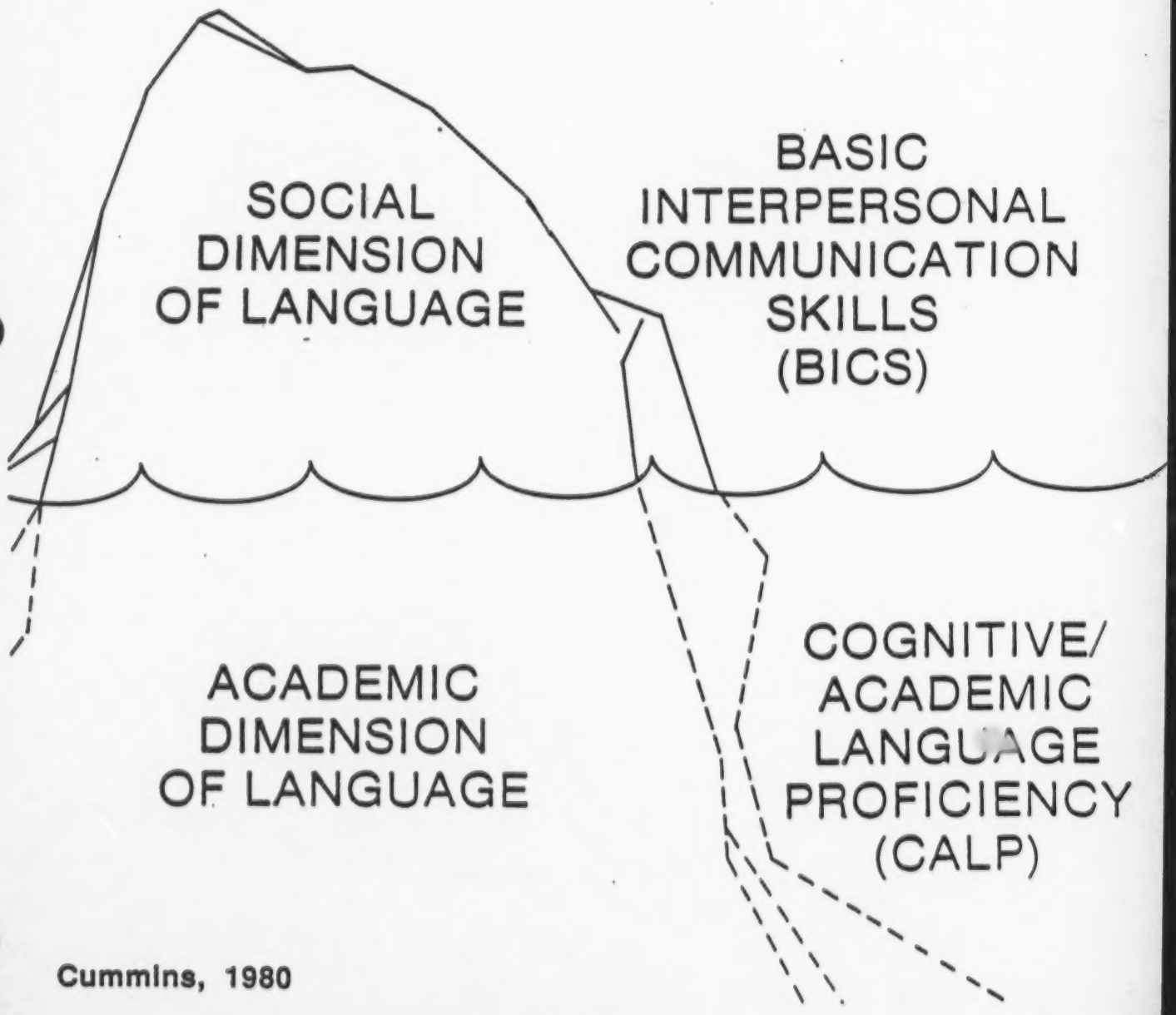
Inherent in our neurological make-up is the capacity for acquiring language. Language acquisition and the development of communicative competence is dependent upon meaningful interaction with other speakers of that language. Therefore, acquiring a language requires the opportunity to use it in meaningful context.

Zamora, 1987

LANGUAGE IS RELATED TO CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

Grade 2-6 Level Communication Development Stage	Child uses complex structures. "If I were you, I would have gone with them."
⇧	
Grade 1 Level Creative Stage	Child is able to create his/her own language. "Mommy, I love you a thousand trees."
⇧	
Kindergarten Level Automatic Stage	Child can generate original utterances. "When I get big, I'm going to be an astronaut."
⇧	
60 months Structural Awareness Stage	Child makes errors by over-generalizing. "I goed to the movies yesterday."
⇧	
48 months Expansion and Delimiting Stage	Language has features of adult language. "I want to go to the store with you."
⇧	
24 months - Unitary Stage	Speech is abbreviated. "Baby, go?"
⇧	
12 months Infant Stage	Child vocalizes. Babbling "ma-ma-ma"
⇧	

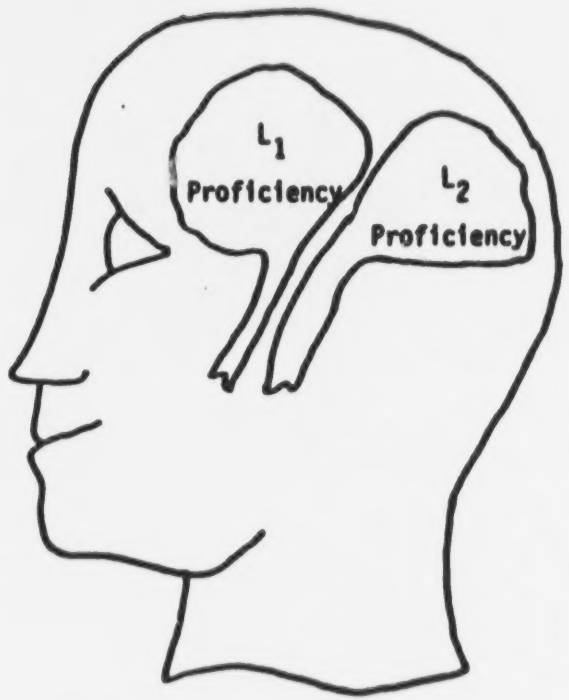
THE TWO DIMENSIONS OF LANGUAGE


SOCIAL DIMENSION OF LANGUAGE
BASIC INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS (BICS)
ACADEMIC DIMENSION OF LANGUAGE
COGNITIVE/ ACADEMIC LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY (CALP)

Cummins, 1980

Language Proficiency

SUP MODEL



Separate Underlying Proficiency

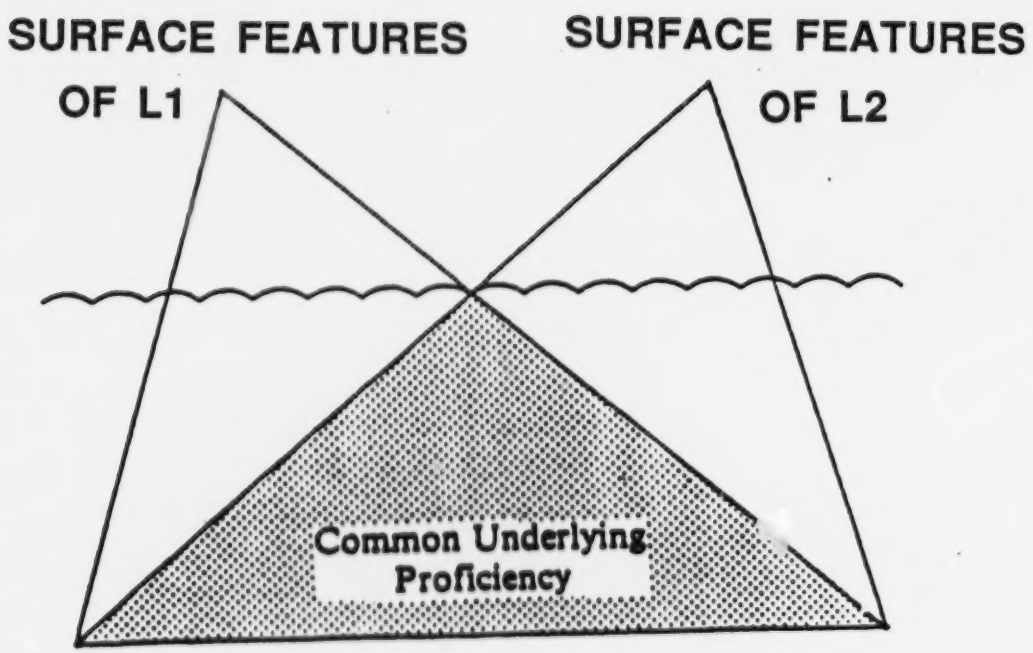
CUP MODEL

Common Underlying Proficiency

From Cummins, 1981

Training Module I: NOD
Transparency 8

THE "DUAL-ICEBERG" REPRESENTATION OF BILINGUAL PROFICIENCY



Cummins, 1981

ESL STUDENT CATEGORIES

ESL 1	Students who are monolingual speakers of other languages and are considered beginning English speakers.
ESL 2	Students who have some oral English skills, score below the 23rd percentile at grades 2 through 12 on a state-approved standardized achievement test, and are at the intermediate level.
ESL 3	Students who have scored at a level to be considered orally proficient in English, but score between the 23rd and 40th percentiles at grades 2 through 12 on a state-approved standardized achievement test.
ESL 4	Students who are enrolling beyond the first grade without previous schooling.

Texas Education Agency, 1987

Training Module I: NOD
Handout 1

The Test of Everyday English

Each of the following items is a common expression in English. Write the answer for each expression. Score 10 points for each correct answer.

1.
W
S O R
H E S

2.
S S
I I
D D
E E

3. g e s g

4. ecnalg

5.
0
Ph.D.
M.S.
B.S.

6. le
vel

7.
ground
feet feet
feet feet
feet feet

8.
T
O
W
N

9.
knee
light

10. | r | e | a | d | i | n | g |

SCORE:_____

Stages of Language Acquisition

Grade 2-6 Level Communication Development Stage	Child acquires difficult phonemes. Child uses complex grammatical structures - "If I were you, I would have gone with them."
⇧	
Grade 1 Level Creative Stage	Child is able to create his/her own language. "Mommy, I love you a thousand trees."
⇧	
Kindergarten Level Automatic Stage	Child can generate original utterances. "When I get big, I'm going to be an astronaut."
⇧	
60 months Structural Awareness Stage	Child makes errors by over-generalizing. "I goed to the movies yesterday."
⇧	
48 months Expansion and Delimiting Stage	Language has features of adult language. "I want to go to the store with you."
⇧	
24 months Unitary Stage	Speech is abbreviated. Child uses two word utterances. "Baby go?"
⇧	
12 months Infant Stage	Child vocalizes. Babbling "ma-ma-ma"
⇧	

ESL Categories

The following students are enrolled in your school. How would you categorize each?

Category

_____1. Maria has just arrived from Mexico. She is the oldest child in a family of six. Maria has attended school in Mexico and finished "la primaria." Maria scored a 1 on her English language proficiency test and a 4 on the Spanish language proficiency test. Maria was not able to take an English achievement test because of her lack of English.

_____2. Trung has lived in the States for two years. Trung has an older brother, Hai, and a younger brother, "Freddy." His achievement test score is in the 26th percentile and his language proficiency score was 4 in English. No test is available in Vietnamese.

_____3. Jaime is a native born Texan and an only child. His mother does not speak English, while his father is fluent in the language. On his language proficiency tests, Jaime scored a 4 in English and a 3 in Spanish. Jaime scored in the 14th percentile in his achievement test.

_____4. Xochitl comes from a family with ten children. Her family has just arrived in the United States. When she was given the language proficiency test she scored a 1 in English and a 1 in Spanish. Xochitl does not have enough language skills in English to take the achievement test. While you were giving her the test, you discovered that she has never been in school.

_____5. Luis is from Puerto Rico. All members of his family are fluent in both Spanish and English. Luis scored a 5 on his English proficiency test and a 3 on his Spanish proficiency test. His achievement test score results were in the 22nd percentile.

_____6. Clara is a recent immigrant. She lives with her aunt. Her oral language test scores were a 5 in Spanish and a 4 in English. Clara has scored in the 35th percentile on her achievement test.

_____7. Rogelio is a monolingual Spanish speaker. His proficiency test scores were a 1 in English and a 5 in Spanish. His lack of English skills prevented him from taking the achievement test. While looking in his permanent record folder, you noticed that a certificate for high academic achievement was given to him while he was in school in Mexico.

IMPORTANT CONSIDERATIONS IN CHOOSING THE LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION

1. EITHER LANGUAGE IS CAPABLE OF PROMOTING THE PROFICIENCY REQUIRED FOR ACADEMIC TASKS.

2. THE IMPORTANT VARIABLE IS THE QUALITY OF INTERACTION THAT CHILDREN EXPERIENCE WITH ADULTS.

3. THE NATIVE LANGUAGE IS THE MEANS THROUGH WHICH COMMUNICATIVE PROFICIENCY WHICH UNDERLIES BOTH THE FIRST AND THE SECOND LANGUAGE IS DEVELOPED.

4. LITERACY SKILLS TRANSFER FROM THE FIRST TO THE SECOND LANGUAGE.

5. STUDENTS ARE ALIENATED IF THEIR LANGUAGE SKILLS ARE DEMEANED.

6. PEER-APPROPRIATE COMMUNICATION IS ACHIEVED WITHIN TWO YEARS.

7. IT TAKES FIVE TO SEVEN YEARS TO ACHIEVE ENGLISH PROFICIENCY FOR ACADEMIC TASKS.

8. CHILDREN SHOULD NOT BE EXITED PREMATURELY FROM ESL/BE PROGRAMS.

9. THE SCHOOL SHOULD IN EVERY CASE BUILD ON, NOT REPLACE, THE ENTRY CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CHILD.

Source:

Cummins, Jim. "Four Misconceptions about Language Proficiency in Bilingual Children. Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education, 5(3), (Spring 1981), 31-45

BILINGUAL EDUCATION
A Sourcebook

Alba N. Ambert
Sarah E. Melendez

Teachers College, Columbia University
New York and London

1987

Chapter 3

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

LANGUAGE-LEARNING THEORIES

The approaches and methods used in teaching second languages in the United States in the twentieth century have been based on one or the other of the two major theories of learning--behaviorist or rationalist.

Behaviorists, of whom B.F. Skinner (1957) and Bloomfield (1933) are the predominant proponents, maintain that the learning process is essentially a stimulus-response-reinforcement process. Language learning is like any other learning. Language is considered to be no more than a set of learned habits, the acquisition of which requires no thinking or analysis. In fact, behaviorists do not accept the notion of mind and thinking, since they cannot be observed. They deal only with phenomena that can be observed, measured, and described. Twaddell (1958) summarized the bias toward the empirical method of behaviorists in terms that make them sound somewhat absurd: "The scientific method is quite simply the convention that mind does not exist" (p. 57).

Another tenet of behaviorists that seems quaint today is that "language is speech, not writing." This led to language teaching that concentrated on speaking and pronunciation, almost to the total exclusion of instruction in reading, writing, and grammar.

Methods of language teaching based on the behaviorist theories of learning became known as "mim-mem" or mimicry-memorization. Children learn language by mimicking what they hear, believe the behaviorists. If they receive positive reinforcement for it, they will repeat the behavior, i.e., sound, word, sentence. If there is negative reinforcement (or no reinforcement, which is seen as negative), the child will not repeat the behavior. A second-language methodology based on behaviorism stresses memorization of dialogs and practice pattern drills. The surface structure and form of the language, as well as the pronunciation, are emphasized. Since

meaning and comprehension cannot be observed, described, and measured, they are not considered.

Rationalists, as exemplified by Chomsky (1965), maintain that human beings learn language because they are innately, and uniquely, capable of doing so. They are, in effect, biologically programmed to learn language. Chomsky coined the phrase Language Acquisition Device (LAD). He claimed that humans are innately and uniquely equipped with an ability to acquire language. The fact that all human beings, even retarded children, learn a language is given as evidence of the theory.

Rationalists declare that language learning is a creative activity governed by rules. Children analyze, categorize, and evaluate language and develop rules for how it works. They cannot possibly be mimicking and memorizing since it is almost impossible that they will hear the same utterance twice. In addition, say rationalists, children say things that they have never heard adults say, e.g., "two foots." It is obvious that they have learned the rule for plurals and overgeneralized. They usually correct themselves later in their language development.

A rationalist approach to language teaching stresses meaning and content instead of structure. Instead of mimicry-memorization and drilling, they use natural, meaningful communication. Dependence on memorization only, without learning any rules, can make the language-learning process impossible, since every single structure would have to be memorized. Grammar is taught explicitly since grammar can help the language learner apply what has been learned to new language situations.

In summary, behaviorist theories led to the structural or descriptive school of linguistics, which led to approaches of language teaching that stressed repetition, memorization, positive reinforcement of correct responses, and emphasis on the surface structure of language. The surface structure of language deals with the words and sentences of language, disregarding the meaning. For example, in the sentence, "Visiting relatives can be boring," the utterance can convey two different meanings, depending on which words are stressed. This is of particular significance to the second-language learner who may learn the words and their placement in the sentence and still misunderstand the meaning.

Language-teaching approaches based on rationalist theories stress comprehension and meaning or the deep structure of the language as illustrated in the sentence "Visiting relatives can be boring." Grammar, rules, and analysis are all part of rationalist approach.

SECOND-LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

We have discussed theories of language acquisition which have a bearing on second-language learning. However, there are many issues involved in the learning of a second language. Researchers have attempted to answer such questions as: Is second-language learning similar to first-language acquisition? Do children learn a second language more easily than adults? Is there an optimum age for second-language learning? Is there a best method for teaching a second language?

It is important at this point to distinguish between language acquisition and language learning. A language is acquired in childhood, naturally, through living, without any formal instruction in the language. A language is learned through purposeful instruction. Therefore, it would appear that only children can acquire language. Adults must learn and be taught language. Furthermore, children can and do acquire second and third languages with apparent ease.

Acquisition of two or more languages simultaneously is said to occur before a child has acquired mastery of any one language, usually by the age of three (McLaughlin, 1978). After the age of three, it is considered that a second language is learned, since a child already has one fairly complete language system. This is successive language learning.

Children universally learn language in the same order, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Children have been listening to language for almost a year before they begin to produce words. Additionally, they have been listening to complete sentences and yet begin to speak with one-word utterances, progressing to two-word utterances, and so on. Through toddlerhood and early childhood, children are capable of understanding sentences of much greater length and complexity than they are capable of producing.

The strategies children use in learning a second language are similar to those used in acquiring their first language. "This suggests that there is a unity of process that characterizes all language acquisition, whether of a first or second language, at all ages" (McLaughlin, p. 200). Dulay and Burt (1974) and Ervin-Tripp (1974) found that children make errors in learning a second language similar to those they make in acquiring their first language.

Based on the evidence of how apparently easily children learn a second language and on the lateralization of the brain, a hypothesis of a critical period for language learning emerged (Lenneberg, 1967). Assigning specific functions to certain areas of the brain, lateralization, is believed to start at about two and continue until puberty. More recently, researchers have believed that lateralization may be complete as early as 5

(Krashen, 1973). Before lateralization, the native language (L_1) and a second language (L_2) can be acquired without much difficulty and with nativelike pronunciation (Scovel, 1969). At that point, it can be considered acquiring two first or native languages.

Prior to lateralization, the brain has a plasticity which appears to be an enabling factor in first and second language acquisition. This plasticity diminishes with lateralization. The ability of pre-pubertal children to learn a second language free of accent is due to physical development. Speech muscles develop gradually, and plasticity may still be present before puberty.

The theory of lateralization and simple observation of children's language behavior would tend to corroborate the hypothesis that children are better than adults at learning a second language. In a few months, children can communicate sufficiently to function in the playground and, at least orally, in the classroom.

On closer scrutiny, however, the superiority of children's language-learning ability is not quite so impressive. A seven-year-old child needs to learn only 50,000 words to be considered a fluent speaker of a language, while an educated adult needs a vocabulary of more than 200,000 words. A seven-year-old has not developed adult-level sentence length and complexity. A child then is considered bilingual if he or she has learned one fifth of the vocabulary of an adult and can communicate at a seven-year-old level of syntactical and grammatical complexity (Krashen, 1978).

Piagetian developmental theory states that the formal operational stage of cognitive development is reached at puberty. It is then that a child can handle abstractions and formal thinking. If language learning is an analytic, thinking, rule-formation process, then it would appear that the period in which a second-language learner can most benefit from formal language instruction would be post puberty. Durette (1972) found that college students learn languages twice as fast as high school students and five times as fast as nine-year-olds. Burstall (1977) found that adults are faster and more efficient learners of second languages, except for pronunciation, than children. It appears then that there is more involved in second-language learning than lateralization.

Guiora, et al. (1972) talk about a language ego as an identity related to one's language. The development of the ego is intimately related to language, since it is through language that the positive or negative reinforcement needed for ego development is received. If the language ego theory is valid, then it might be expected that young children would have the least difficulty in learning a second language, since

their egos are still evolving in terms of L_1. Adding a new language at this point poses no particular threat. Adolescence, however, is a time of emotional turmoil and insecurity. It is at this age that the ego is probably the most vulnerable. Brown (1980) stated: "Pre-adolescent children of 9 or 10, for example, are beginning to develop inhibitions, and it is conceivable, though little research evidence is available, that children of this age who are exposed to a second language will have more difficulty in learning the second language than younger children" (p. 54).

It would seem that adults could go either way. If their ego resolution has been successful, language learning should be easier. An insecure adult of low self-esteem would probably have a difficult time learning a second language.

Attitude toward languages, one's own and the target language, is an important factor in language learning. Young children have had less opportunity to develop negative attitudes toward language than adults. They may not be aware of all the issues of politics, prestige, nationalism, etc., that contribute to a person's attitude about a second language.

It is surprising, however, how even children in early grades can perceive and acquire attitudes about language. Many of the early Title VII bilingual programs used the two-way model, with monolingual English-speaking students learning the native language of the non-English-speaking group (usually Spanish). One of the recurring issues was the marked difference in the amount of second-language learning between the two groups: the Spanish-speaking students learned significantly more English than the reverse.

Although there are many contributing factors to this phenomenon, such as the constant reinforcement of English outside the classroom, and in the media, the question of attitude cannot be dismissed. Even children of 5 or 6 quickly learn that English is the prestige language.

Adult strategies in second-language learning have not been studied as much as those of children, but it appears that they "approach a second language systematically and attempt to form linguistic rules on the basis of whatever linguistic information is available to them--information from both the native language and from the second language itself" (Brown, p. 57).

It has been found that adults make many of the same errors in learning a second language as children do in learning their first language. This would indicate that they use strategies for second-language learning similar to those used by children.

Seliger (1978) posits that there may be many critical periods for language learning "successive and perhaps overlapping, lasting probably throughout one's lifetime, each

closing off different acquisition abilities." He states further that "... owing to the loss of plasticity and the closing of critical periods for whatever language functions, the learner will not be able to incorporate some aspect of the second language." He concludes that "much language can still be acquired by adults, but not to the same degree possible for children ..." (pp. 16, 18).

A popular theory of second-language learning held that a person's first language would interfere with his/her attempts to learn a second language. This led to contrastive analysis as a tool for anticipating the problem a learner would have in attempting to learn a second language. It was argued that knowledge of how the learners' first and second languages are similar and how they differ would help the teacher anticipate those features of the new language that would cause difficulty.

Contrastive analysis compares all the structures of the native and target languages in an attempt to identify all the structures that are similar and can be transferred, and all those that are different, or exist in one language and not the other and might, therefore, cause interference. Where structures are similar (e.g., "m," "p," "b" sounds in Spanish and English) the learner can transfer the sounds from the native to the target language. Conversely, the "sh" and "s" sounds in English do not exist in Spanish, and Spanish-speaking learners of English traditionally have difficulty with these sounds.

Contrastive analysis proved to be inadequate to predict all the errors that a language learner can make. Not all the errors made by a language learner in L_2 are caused by interference from L_1. Adults sometimes make the same errors in learning a second language that children do in learning a first language. They formulate rules as they progress in learning a language and sometimes overgeneralize, as children do in saying "two foots."

Error analysis appeared to be a better method for identifying the errors made by language learners. This involves analyzing all the errors made by language learners, not only those caused by language interference. It revealed that second-language learners do not make all the errors predicted by contrastive analysis and that not all errors made were due to native language interference but, in fact, had many sources.

Although error analysis is a useful device for studying the strategies language learners use in learning a second language, it does not tell very much about the learners' communicative competence. The ultimate reason for learning a language is to communicate with speakers of the language. This requires mastery of all the functions of the language.

Both error and contrastive analysis concentrate on the

forms of language, the vocabulary, pronunciation, grammatical structures, that a learner uses. That does not give any information on how much comprehension of the context is taking place. Evelyn Hatch (1978) summarizes the problems inherent in observing only students' ability to use words and sentences correctly. She maintains that a language learner does not necessarily first learn to "manipulate structures" and gradually learn many structures which are then used in communication or discourse. She proposed that the reverse is true: "One learns how to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally, and out of this interaction, syntactic structures are developed" (p. 404).

Neither contrastive nor error analysis tells us very much about a person's communicative competence--How well does a learner manipulate the functions of language? Can a language learner use the language to exchange information, convey and perceive feelings, persuade, etc.? "We use language in stretches of discourse" (Brown, 1980). The best way to gain understanding of how much mastery of the functions of a second language has been acquired is through discourse analysis.

Discourse analysis is concerned with the psychological, sociocultural, physical, and linguistic features of communication. Issues such as the style of speech a speaker uses in speaking to different audiences (register), non-verbal communication, and the rules of conversation are all within the purview of discourse analysis.

APPROACH TO LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

The theories of language acquisition and second-language learning have resulted in several approaches and many methods for second-language instruction. We will discuss some of the major approaches and methods.

Although "approach" and "method" are often used interchangeably, there is a worthwhile distinction. An approach is one based on one of the learning theories, i.e., will the approach stress mimicry and memorization or will it stress meaning, process, and grammar? Will grammar be taught formally? How much importance should be placed on pronunciation and on correcting errors? Methods are developed on the basis of the approach to which the developer subscribes.

The twentieth century has been one of change, and often turmoil, for language-teaching methods. There have been numerous methods, each greatly touted, and often hailed as a panacea, until the next one came along. For the most part, each new method built on a previous one, discarding some aspect and replacing it with a new one.

Grammar-translation approach

Classical languages were traditionally taught with the grammar-translation approach. Students were never expected to speak or think in the language. They needed only to read passages in the original and translate them into English. During the 1950's and 1960's in the United States, many students suffered through foreign-language classes, memorizing verb conjugations and vocabulary lists with their translations. The classes were conducted in English, except for the drilling of the verb conjugations and the reading aloud of short passages. Whole paragraphs were translated from the target language into English. There was little attention paid to understanding the content of the material or to pronunciation. Often the teachers themselves had decidedly poor command of the language, particularly of its pronunciation.

Reading approach

This was the preferred approach for students who needed only to read the target language, either for studying in it or for reading professional materials, e.g., Ph.D. students. There is a good deal of reading done in the target language immediately. The vocabulary is carefully controlled and the grammar taught is only that which is necessary for understanding the material being read.

Direct approach

This is usually referred to as a method but there are several methods that fall under this type of teaching, and we will consider it as an approach. Emerging as a reaction to the grammar-translation approach, its underlying principle is that the best way to learn a language is by using it naturally for communication. The Berlitz method is based on the direct approach. In the direct approach, material is introduced via an anecdote or short dialog. The Berlitz method begins by naming common classroom articles. Questions and answers based on the dialog or anecdote follow. Classes are conducted solely in the target language and progress from simple to complex material. Grammar is taught formally only after the students have had the opportunity to practice the patterns orally.

The direct approach has been used successfully by the U.S. Foreign Service and the military to prepare personnel who must learn basic communication in a short period of time.

The audiolingual approach

Features of the direct method and the habit-formation, stimulus-response-reinforcement of an approach based in behaviorist learning theory are combined in this approach. The audiolingual approach introduces new material in naturalistic dialog. Vocabulary and grammatical structures are carefully controlled and sequenced. Language skills are sequenced, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Memorization, via repetition drills, is stressed. Formal grammar is not stressed; instead, grammar is induced from the dialogs. Contrastive analysis of the native and second languages is used extensively. Use is made of audio-visual aids. Classes are conducted primarily in the target language but brief explanations in the native language are sometimes used. Pronunciation is stressed and reinforced with a good deal of teacher praise or correction. Dialog and conversation are sometimes contrived, since vocabulary and grammatical patterns are carefully controlled.

The cognitive approach

The emphasis in this approach is communication. All language skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing are considered equally important. Pronunciation and memorization are not stressed. Context and meaning are of primary importance. The affective aspects of language learning and teaching, i.e., teacher and pupil attitude, motivation, and classroom interactions are also considered important. The teacher is seen as a facilitator of the language-learning process. Language learning is seen as rule-formation involving thinking, analysis, and evaluation. Therefore, grammar is taught formally. Use of the mother tongue is allowed.

LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

There are literally dozens of methods currently in use in foreign and English-as-a-second-language instruction in the United States. We will discuss only the best known or most widely used.

The audiolingual method

This is an approach and a method which is still used. Many commercially produced materials use the audiolingual method described in the previous section.

The silent way

Caleb Gattegno (1978) has developed a teaching method which has acquired many converts and created many antagonists. The title stems from the fact that the teacher in a second-language class is silent a good deal of the time, as much as ninety percent. Instruction begins with the use of cuisenair rods (brightly-colored wooden rods of varying lengths). A lesson will begin with "A rod." This is repeated several times. "A red rod" follows. From this simple beginning students progress to very complex discourse using the rods to represent many things, such as cars, houses, etc. During a first lesson, students have been able to respond to sentences such as "Take three yellow rods and two green rods and give them to Joan."

After introducing new vocabulary and patterns, the teacher remains silent most of the time and directs the class through sign language that looks like charades. Students also have the opportunity to play teacher. The teacher does not correct students, answer their questions, or give positive reinforcement.

Initially, vocabulary is limited. Along with the rods, phonic charts and word lists in colors to denote identical sounds are used exclusively. After the basics of the language have been covered, controlled readers are introduced.

The silences in lessons are very active periods when students are thinking about what they have heard. They must think and concentrate intensively in order not to miss anything, since the teacher will make a statement only once. Students must correct themselves and help one another.

The counseling method

Curran (1976) sees the teaching-learning relationship as essentially similar to the counseling relationship. In fact, he calls the participants teacher/counselor/knower, and learner/client. This method is probably the one most concerned about the process and interpersonal relationships in language learning and teaching. Curran emphasizes that the teachers' and students' feelings about themselves and about one another are the primary factor in the teaching-learning environment. Each must assume a share of the responsibility for the relationship.

Language learners (clients) sit in a circle. Teachers (counselors) remain outside the circle. Students are told to talk about any topic they like. They begin the conversation in their native language and the teacher then translates what each student has said into the target language. The students

repeat what the teacher has said in the target language. A tape is made of the students' repetition of the target language. At the end of the conversation, the tape is played back and the teacher writes what the students have said on the board. This provides a text from which vocabulary and grammar are explained.

This method, with its lack of structure, places control of learning on the students. The teacher does not question or give reinforcement, positive or negative. This places great demands on the teacher, however, since there is no way to control vocabulary or grammar.

One drawback of this method is that it requires that all the learners and the knower have a common language. If more than one language is represented in the learners, then one "knower" is needed for each language.

Another limitation of the method is that a knower needs counseling skills as well as knowledge of the two languages.

The total physical response

From close observation of how young children learn language, Asher (1969, 1977) concluded that (a) children spend a long time listening to language before they speak, and can understand a good deal more language than they can produce; (b) that children's bodies are actively involved in their language learning, i.e., children mainly make statements concerning actions in which they are involved; and (c) most of the language children hear in their early stages of language learning are direct commands.

The Total Physical Response, then, stresses the need for listening to a second language before being required to speak it. Language is taught through commands that require the student to act or respond physically. Only after the students have had a good deal of practice in listening and responding to commands are they asked to speak. Students are asked to reverse roles and give commands to the teacher and to one another. This method has the advantage of putting the control of vocabulary and grammar in the teachers' hands.

There are many other methods of teaching English as a second language being used in programs throughout the country. Suggestology uses music to create a mood conducive to language learning. The Audio-Visual Method uses filmstrips. The Community Learning method is similar to the Counseling Method.

The three methods described in greater detail are those most widely used in bilingual education programs.

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

None of the methods discussed was developed specifically for use in bilingual education programs. Each one was concerned with the teaching of a foreign language. Some were tried with such exotic languages as Swahili and some with such widely used languages as Spanish.

Until the 1950's, non-English-speaking children arriving in the United States were placed in mainstream classes where very little out of the ordinary was done to try to integrate them into the class. This has been named the "sink or swim" method. Some sympathetic teachers would assign other students who spoke the language to explain things to newcomers in their native language. English as a foreign or second language was almost exclusively an activity for foreign students in colleges and universities.

School districts were suddenly finding themselves with large numbers of students, mostly Chicanos in the southwest and Puerto Ricans in the northeast, who were not learning English and assimilating. Mexican-American veterans returning from World War II started the "Little Schools of the 400," an early-day Headstart-type of program. These schools were set up to give Chicano children readiness for school by teaching them "the 400 most common words of American English" (Keller and Van Hooft, 1982). In New York City, in 1958, the Board of Education issued the Puerto Rican Study which described the problems faced by Puerto Rican children in the city's public schools.

The first approach to teaching new arrivals English was the pull-out English as a Second Language (ESL) program. Children from several classrooms would be taken out of their classes in groups of up to ten for one period a day of instruction in ESL. These programs were unable to have much impact on the rate of English learning of the students for many reasons.

In New York City, for example, there was usually one ESL teacher to a school. Some ESL teachers were itinerant, serving several schools. In those cases, children were pulled out for instruction only once or twice a week. In light of what is known about language learning today, it is obvious that this was not sufficient. In addition, it was often the practice that when a principal needed an extra teacher to "pinch-hit," it was the ESL teacher who was pressed into service and the children lost a class. In schools where safety was a problem, the teacher had to go from room to room returning children and picking up the next group. Very often, fifteen minutes of a fifty-minute class were wasted in the process.

When proponents of bilingual education began claiming that

ESL alone was not effective, ESL teachers became defensive and vehemently opposed bilingual education. Not only were they defending their profession but their jobs as well. Unfortunately, there is still too much distance between Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and bilingual education professionals. Although bilingual educators all agree that an effective program of bilingual education must include a strong ESL component, they point out that an approach based solely on ESL which ignores the student's native language and culture is doomed to failure.

In transitional bilingual programs, the most common in the United States, typical students will begin learning all subjects in their native language and studying ESL for one or more periods a day with an ESL teacher. This is often done on a pull-out basis. The best situations have teachers who have been trained in TESOL. Often, however, the teachers are not certified, nor have they had preparation in TESOL.

As the students' proficiency in English increases, subject matter is introduced in English, thereby increasing the amount of time spent learning English. Most of the ESL instruction is limited to oral English, reading and writing being left to the classroom teacher.

Unfortunately, there is often little communication between the classroom teacher and the ESL teacher. In an ideal situation, they would confer often in order to reinforce each other's teaching. The ESL teacher could include content area vocabulary in the language class.

Since most bilingual programs in the United States are of the transitional model, there is always the felt pressure to teach children to speak, read, and write English in order that they may be mainstreamed in approximately three years. Although there is research evidence to indicate that there is a direct correlation between proficiency in L_1 and achievement in learning L_2 (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1979; Cummins, 1979), bilingual teachers and administrators find that they must push the formal ESL instruction before children have acquired the necessary proficiency in L_1 to achieve maximum benefit from instruction in L_2.

It bears repeating that there is research evidence to indicate that the optimal age for simultaneous acquisition of two languages is from birth to three. After the age of three, language learning appears to be most effective after children have fully mastered their L_1. This creates conflict for bilingual educators when they must adhere to a time schedule for mainstreaming despite what they believe to be sound pedagogical practice. If children of limited English proficiency (LEP) begin their schooling in a bilingual program before they have learned to read their L_1, should they be taught to read L_1 or

should they be taught to read L_2 and forego reading in L_1? Sound pedagogy and common sense would indicate that children of 5, 6, or 7 who have appropriate mastery of their L_1 are ready for reading in L_1. Waiting for them to develop comparable mastery of L_2 will delay the learning to read unnecessarily.

It is argued that reading is a skill that once learned does not have to be relearned; students who can read one language will find learning to read a second language fairly easy. The skills of reading, decoding, word attack, comprehension, etc., are said to be transferable. This argument is particularly relevant to Spanish-speaking students, since Spanish has greater sound-symbol correspondence than English and is, therefore, easier to read. It is not clear that the same is true for students of Asian backgrounds whose languages do not use our alphabet.

Cummins (1979) hypothesizes that a threshold level of competence in L_1 is necessary before children are exposed to L_2 in a school situation. When that occurs, and L_2 is introduced in an "additive" mode, i.e., the child will be adding a language, not exchanging (subtractive), a threshold level of bilingualism is reached, which results in positive effects on cognitive growth.

The assumption underlying this hypothesis is that L_1 has provided a child with understanding of linguistic concepts and the development of abstract thinking, which he or she will use in learning L_2. If a child is exposed to formal instruction in L_2 before reaching the developmental level of abstract thinking, it is likely that he or she will not achieve competence in either language.

If bilingual programs were to delay reading in L_2 until children were proficient readers in L_1, many children would not be able to be mainstreamed in three years. Learning a second language and reading in either L_1 or L_2 are subject to individual aptitude. It is well known that not all children learn to read at the same time.

Some children are being taught to read in L_2 before they are proficient readers of L_1. When they lag behind their peers in reading in English upon being mainstreamed, critics of bilingual education declare that it is not effective. Yet, several studies have demonstrated that there is sometimes a lag in one or both languages in children in bilingual programs in the first few years which is usually recovered later, in four or five years.

The issue of reading in L_2 for students who are proficient readers of L_1 is similar. The cognitive approaches to ESL give equal stress to speaking, reading, and writing. Reading, writing, and grammar are often taught immediately, all the skills

being integrated in each lesson.

One technique for integrating all the language skills which is effective with both children and adults is the language experience. Students relate an experience, the teacher writes it, the students read it and then copy it.

Adults learning a second language who are literate in L_1 profit from explicit instruction in grammar and from contrastive analysis. Rules for grammar are best presented after students have had some practice using the structures.

While young children seem to learn a second language easily in a "natural" way, i.e., without formal instruction, older children, especially those literate in L_1, adolescents and adults benefit from, and seem to prefer, formal instruction. Some of the methods discussed, particularly those which combine "naturalistic" language learning with formal instruction, are effective with both children and adult language learners. The Total Physical Response and the Silent Way have been effective with children and adults.

TESTING IN ESL

Testing has been and continues to be an important issue in bilingual education and ESL. Except for the few maintenance programs, children are placed in bilingual programs on the basis of an assessment of their language dominance, i.e., their strongest language. After students' dominance is determined, proficiency must be assessed in order to place them in an appropriate class, level, ESL group, etc.

A bilingual person for whom dominance might not be clear could be tested for proficiency in either language, and the language in which he or she is most proficient would be the dominant language.

When a teacher believes a student may be ready for mainstreaming, proficiency is tested again. If the student is deemed proficient enough to profit from instruction in English, he or she is mainstreamed.

Testing in ESL is fraught with all the problems of testing in general and, in addition, with some problems peculiar to bilingual education. In the first place is the question of whether a test truly measures what it purports to. Some tests are oral, others are written; some test vocabulary, etc. Walters (1979) suggests that "A partial solution to this problem is to consider language assessment from the perspective of the entire range of the child's abilities." He continues, "Thus, by broadening the number and type of instruments used to assess language ability, it is possible to increase the accuracy of the assessment" (p. 5).

Another problem with language assessment is that tests are normed and assume homogeneity. Even if the groups on which the tests were normed were homogeneous, which is highly unlikely, the students in bilingual education programs represent different cultural, linguistic, and dialectal groups.

Language tests provide information on students' mastery of phonological, syntactical and lexical aspects of the language, but tell nothing about their communicative competence. Testing in ESL is, therefore, moving from discrete point tests, those focusing on one point at a time, e.g., phonology, vocabulary, etc., to pragmatic or integrative tests. A pragmatic test "is any procedure or task that causes the learner to process sequences of elements in a language that conform to the normal contextual restraints of that language ..." (Oller, 1979, p. 38).

The Bilingual Syntax Measure improves on other commonly used tests, such as the New York City Language Assessment Battery, in that it elicits discourse from children instead of one-word utterances or pointing to an item.

Integrated tests are better at assessing students' ability to comprehend and produce language. Cloze, dictation, oral interviews, essay, and translation are examples of pragmatic tests.

Testing is discussed more fully in Chapter 4.

CONCLUSION

It is very clear from the literature that there is no one method of teaching ESL that is best, since no method could possibly fill all the needs and styles of all students and instructors. Issues such as individual aptitude, learning style, motivation, amount of time spent on learning the language, outside reinforcement, all have an impact on how much language is learned.

There are themes that reoccur in the literature, however. Teaching or learning a foreign language is not a pure science. Like the arts, the skills needed to learn and teach are sometimes abstract. The needs and, therefore, the skills for learning and teaching are always changing. The methods must change accordingly.

The ESL students must feel positive about their task of learning. They must have positive feelings about the value and pleasure of learning a second language. Negative feelings will occur; they are normal. The learner and the educator must accept this. It is the latter's responsibility to lessen this reality and to create a warm, positive environment, as much as possible.

Students must know that they can express negative feelings in the learning environment and thus turn their fears and anxieties into positive learning experiences. As the fears are communicated and analyzed, they will ultimately be eliminated through the use of the second language as the agent of discussion. Hence, the second language and the fear of it become the agents of change.

ESL learners must feel good about themselves, their culture, and their native language. They must realize that their own language is as interesting and intellectually challenging as the second language being learned.

An important factor in successful language learning is the amount of time spent on the task. It is preferable to spend one half hour a day on learning L_2 than to spend two hours once a week. In addition, peer relationships with native speakers, out of the classroom, and other direct-contact-learning experiences are essential to learning a second language.

ESL teachers should have had the experience of attempting to learn another language. The understanding of the frustrations, fears, anxieties, difficulties, and joy upon success that is gained from the experience cannot be taught, only lived.

Finally, ESL instructors ought to love people, and enjoy the process of discovering the similarities and differences among them.

REFERENCES

Asher, J.J. *Learning Another Language Through Actions: The Complete Teacher's Guidebook*. California: Sky Oak Productions, 1977.

Asher, J.J. "The Total Physical Response Approach to Second Language Learning." *Modern Language Journal*, 1969, 53:3017.

Bloomfield, L. *Language*. New York: Holt, 1933.

Brown, D.H. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1980.

Burstall, C. "Primary French in the Balance." *Foreign Language Annals*, 1977, 10:245-258.

Chomsky, N. *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge: MIT Press, 1965.

Cummins, J. "Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, Linguistic Interdependence, the Optimal Age Question and Other Matters." *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 1979, No. 19.

Cummins, J. "Linguistic Interdependence and the Educational Development of Bilingual Education." *Review of Educational Research*, 1979, 49:222-251.

Curran, C.A. *Counseling-Learning in Second Language*. Illinois: Apple River Press, 1976.

Dulay, H.C., and M.K. Burt. "Natural Sequences in Child Second Language Acquisition." *Language Learning*, 1974, 24:37-53.

Durette, R. "A Five Year FLES Report." *Modern Language Journal*, 1972, 56:23-24.

Ervin-Tripp, S. "Is Second Language Learning Like the First?" *TESOL Quarterly*, 1974, 8:111-127.

Gattegno, C. *Teaching Foreign Languages in School the Silent Way*. New York: Educational Solutions, Inc., 1972, 2nd ed., reprinted, 1978.

Guiora, A.Z., B.C.L. Brannon, and C.Y. Dull. "Empathy and Second Language Learning." *Language Learning*, 1972, 22: 111-130.

Hatch, E. *Second Language Acquisition*. Massachusetts: Newbury House, 1978.

Keller, G.D., and K.S. Van Hooft. "A Chronology of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education in the United States." In J.A. Fishman and G.D. Keller, eds., *Bilingual Education for Hispanic Students in the United States*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1982.

Krashen, S. "Lateralization, Language Learning, and the Critical Period: Some New Evidence." *Language Learning*, 1973, 23:63-74.

Krashen, S. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Pergamon Press, 1978.

Lenneberg, E.H. *The Biological Foundations of Language*. New York: Wiley & Sons, 1967.

McLaughlin, B. *Second Language Acquisition in Childhood*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1978.

Oller, J.W., Jr. *Language Tests at School*. London: Longman, 1979.

Scovel, T. "Foreign Accents, Language Acquisition and Cerebral Dominance." *Language Learning*, 1969, 19: 245-254.

Seliger, H.W. "A Multiple Critical Period Hypothesis." In *Second Language Acquisition Research: Issues and Implications*. New York: Academic Press, 1978.

Skinner, B.F. *Verbal Behavior*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. *Language in the Process of Cultural Assimilation and Structural Incorporation of Linguistic Minorities*. Rosslyn, VA: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1979.

Twadell, F.W. "On Defining a Phoneme." In M. Joos (ed.), *Readings in Linguistics: The Development of Descriptive Linguistics in America Since 1925*. New York: American Council of Learned Societies, 1958.

Walters, J. "Language Variation in Assessing Bilingual Children's Communicative Competence." *Bilingual Education Paper Series*, 1979, Vol. 3, No. 3. National Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Andersson, T. *The Pre-school Years*. Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center, California, 1981.

A study of the experience of three families whose children became biliterate before entering school. The author states that pre-school children are learning to read but too often adults do not notice. The concise text is highly readable and practical. Section IV includes specific advice on how to encourage young children to read in two languages.

Cazden, C. *Child Language and Education*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1972.

A classic on child language, it discusses the nature of language and language development, language and thinking, and language in school. The appendix provides methods for analyzing children's speech.

Celce-Murci, M., and L. McIntosh, eds. *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*. Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1979.

A book of readings which covers theory and practice of ESL in a readable and usable format. The book is grouped into four major sections: teaching methods, language skills, students, and teachers. The language skills section is particularly useful to the teacher as it provides specific activities and techniques.

Clark, R.C. *Language Teaching Techniques: Resource Handbook No. 1*. Pro Lingua Associates, Vermont, 1980.

For the second language teacher, 26 techniques for teaching communication and grammar. The focus of the techniques is the spoken language. For each technique presented, the purpose, a description, and a sample are given. These are followed by a detailed procedure, variations, suggestions, and guidelines for writing a similar activity.

Cohen, A.D. *Testing Language Ability in the Classroom*. Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1980.

This short volume is intended for teachers who must assess their students' progress. It discusses testing in general, i.e., the test, the test-taker, test-administration and scoring. One chapter is dedicated to quiz and test preparation. Includes a useful glossary and an exclusive reference list.

Diller, K.C., ed. *Individual Differences and Universals in Language Learning Aptitude*. Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1981.

These eleven essays contribute to the discussion of the significance of individual aptitude for language learning despite the universals generally accepted. Three major divisions organize the papers: neurolinguistic perspectives, psycholinguistic perspectives, and a philosophic view. Essays discuss the optimum age controversy, genetic influence, strategies for language learning, attitude, and more. The book is for those who wish to be brought up to date on the research, not necessarily for the practitioner seeking techniques.

Donoghue, M.R., and J.P. Kunkle. *Second Languages in Primary Education*. Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1979.

Makes a strong case for foreign language programs in elementary education and distinguishes between these and bilingual education programs. Presents the FLES method for oral, reading, and writing skills. Offers useful suggestions for planning the program and includes annotated list of language dominance and proficiency tests.

Finocchiaro, M. *English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice*. Regents Publishing Co., New York, 1974.

This revised edition includes the theories and methods which have emerged since the original was published. This is a good text for teacher-training programs.

Goldstein, W.L. *Teaching English as a Second Language: An Annotated Bibliography*. Garland Publishing, Inc., New York, 1975.

Lists 852 entries in TESL in seventeen categories, from adult to writing. Of particular interest to ESL teachers are the entries under methodology and teaching aids.

Gonzalez, E.S., and V. Gage. *Second Language Learning Among Children: A Bibliography of Research.* National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, Virginia, 1981.

Approximately 90 abstracts of books, papers, and monographs on a wide range of topics in second-language acquisition of children. A good place to begin for anyone doing research on the topic. Although entries are not grouped by topic but merely listed by access number, there are title and author indexes.

Hatch, E.M., ed. *Second Language Acquisition: A Book of Readings.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1978.

The 26 papers in this book are grouped into three major categories: case studies, experimental studies, and simultaneous acquisition of two languages, children adding a second language and second-language acquisition of older learners.

Heaton, J.B. *Writing English Language Tests.* Longman, London, 1975.

This book is intended for the language classroom teacher. It discusses language testing and the different types of tests used in language teaching. The reader is guided through test and item construction. Includes a good bibliography and practice material.

Izzo, S. *Second Language Learning: A Review of Related Studies.* National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1981.

Reviews recent studies and poses the question, What factors influence success in second-language learning? Speaking of personal, situational, and linguistic factors Izzo highlights many interesting themes which the lay person and the professional will find relevant in day-to-day practice. The extensive, twelve-page bibliography augments the useful contents of this text.

Joiner, E.G., and P.B. Westphal. *Developing Communication Skills: General Considerations and Specific Techniques.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1978.

The first seven papers deal in somewhat general terms with the issue of communication in the language classroom and provide illustrations that help clarify the theory. The second set of papers deals with specific techniques for teaching communication. The student preparing to teach

second language or the teacher seeking to improve her or his technique will find the topics for discussion and/or action useful.

Kaplan, R.B., ed. *On the Scope of Applied Linguistics.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1980.

This slim volume is a good introduction to applied linguistics. Ten linguists redefine the term and discuss topics such as a search for insight, the scope of linguistics, educational linguistics, and the pursuit of relevance. A good case is made for the inclusion of applied linguistics in the continuing education of L_2 teachers.

Macauley, R. *Generally Speaking: How Children Learn Language.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1980.

This slim volume traces the development of children's language using a minimum of technical terminology. In addition to discussing the order of child language learning, it discusses attitudes toward language and learning a second language. This is a highly readable introduction to language learning.

Mackey, R., and J.D. Palmer. *Language for Specific Purposes.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1981.

Of particular relevance to administrators of adult education. The first paper, dealing with developing curriculum for programs of language for specific purpose, traces such development from the policymaking decision to the pre-program development, program development, maintenance, and quality-control stages. Adult basic education and bilingual vocational education administrators will find the practical orientation of the papers useful.

Madsen, H.S., and J.D. Bowen. *Adaptation in Language Teaching.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1978.

This book will be helpful to language teachers in adapting textbooks and materials to their particular needs. Topics discussed are contextualization, usage problems, language variety, and administrative and pedagogical concerns. Appendices contain very practical material on evaluating textbooks, estimating readability, and adapting materials in context.

Nilsen, D.L., and A.P. Nilsen. *Language Play: An Introduction to Linguistics.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1978.

Teachers of high school students and adults will find this book useful. After discussing language and language development, it proceeds to discuss language play as a creative and innate activity. Succeeding chapters discuss play with the sounds of language, spelling, work and sentence formation, and much more. This could help make language learning more fun.

Paulston, C.B., and M.N. Bruder. *Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures.* Winthrop Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1976.

Aimed at the classroom teacher and teacher trainer, this book is concerned with the techniques of ESL. The sections are each dedicated to a language skill, grammar, speaking, pronunciation, listening comprehension, reading, and writing. Each chapter contains practical and useful material for the ESL classroom.

Penalosa, F. *Introduction to the Sociology of Language.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1981.

Intended for graduate and advanced undergraduate students. this is an attempt to present the current understandings in social science and linguistics and their relationship. The material should be read by everyone teaching linguistically and culturally different students. The nature of language, society and culture, multilingualism, and language policy and language conflict are some of the important topics dealt with. The bibliography is extensive.

Richards, J.C., ed. *Understanding Second and Foreign Language Learning: Issues and Approaches.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1978.

Thirteen papers attempting to bring together current theories and trends in second-language learning and teaching. The book will be most interesting to those studying the teaching and learning of a second language. Teachers of ESL will not find recipes. Each chapter includes an extensive list and good discussion questions.

Rivers, W.M. *Teaching Foreign-Language Skills.* The University of Chicago Press, Illinois, 1968.

This remains a popular text for teacher-training programs in ESL. The author encourages methods that incorporate habit formation and understanding. It covers all the language skills and provides specific techniques.

Selinker, L. . arone, and V. Hanzeli, eds. *English for Academic ..l Technical Purposes.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1981.

This book should be of particular interest to those teaching English to adults whose purpose is to study or work in technical pursuits or to pursue higher education in English. The papers are grouped into a section on theory and one on practical applications. The content is quite specific and technical and probably will not be of much interest to the public school teacher.

Stevick, E.W. *Memory, Meaning, and Method: Some Psychological Perspectives on Language Learning.* Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1976.

. Explores in depth the role of memory and meaning in language learning. The book reads like a review of the literature with its numerous references. Discusses several language teaching methods but is not a "how-to" book. The book ends with six things the author would like to see in a classroom which would improve the climate and learning achieved in any, not just in language, classroom.

Stevick, E.W. *Teaching Languages: A Way and Ways.* Newbury House, Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1980.

Addresses three questions. "Why do some language students succeed and others fail? Why do some language teachers fail and others succeed? What success may the learners and teachers of foreign languages expect?" Stevick's style is to describe his personal experience with the theory or method and then draw his own conclusions.

Thonis, E.W. *Literacy for America's Spanish Speaking Children.* International Reading Association, Delaware, 1971, and Marysville Reading-Learning Center, California, 1976.

Highlights concepts and misconceptions which can direct the educator away from errors of the past toward more successful approaches to effecting literacy or biliteracy in the classroom. The volume is most relevant to the elementary school years. Three issues discussed are: "the nature of the Spanish speaking child in relationship to his success in reading"; the need to group pupils on the basis of skills --"preliterate," "literate" and "functioning illiterate"; and "alternatives for helping the Spanish-speaking pupil achieve literacy levels commensurate with his greatest potential."

Thonis, E.W. *Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers*. Collier-Macmillan International, New York, 1980.

Intended for the classroom teacher, the book deals with three major topics: reading in the vernacular, reading in English, and appraising pupil progress. Reading in the vernacular discusses reading as a developmental task. Reading in English treats all kinds of second-language readers, literate, pre-literate, and illiterate in L_1. Also discussed is reading in the content areas. The orientation is very practical. All teachers responsible for teaching reading to LEP students ought to have it in their libraries.

Winitz, H., ed. *The Comprehension Approach to Foreign Language Instruction*. Newbury House Publishers, Inc., Massachusetts, 1981.

Thirteen papers each arguing that it is necessary to comprehend a second language before one can produce it. The case is made repeatedly for a long period of listening to the second language in order to develop the aural comprehension that will later facilitate the speaking. The chapter by Swaffar and Stephens describes the theoretical and actual comprehension-based class.

Race Desegregation - Gender Equity - National Origin Desegregation

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE AND TRAINING MODULES

ORDER FORM

Technical Assistance Modules	**Unit cost**	**# of copies**	**Total**
Federal Statutes and Directives Regarding National Origin Students	$7.50	_____	_____
Federal Statutes and Directives Regarding Title IX Compliance	$7.50	_____	_____
Civil Rights Compliance: An Update	$7.50	_____	_____
Training Modules	**Unit cost**	**# of copies**	**Total**
I First and Second Language Acquisition Processes	$7.50	_____	_____
II Integrating the ESL Student into the Content Area Classroom	$7.50	_____	_____
III Recognizing Cultural Differences in the Classroom	$7.50	_____	_____
IV Sex Sterotyping and Bias: Their Origin and Effects	$7.50	_____	_____
V Modeling Equitable Behavior in the Classroom	$7.50	_____	_____
VI Avoiding Sex Bias in Counseling	$7.50	_____	_____
VII Equity in Counseling and Advising Students: Keeping Options Open	$7.50	_____	_____
VIII Interpersonal Communications: A Human Relations Practicum	$7.50	_____	_____
IX It's a Matter of Race: Race Relations in the Desegregated Setting	$7.50	_____	_____
Special Offer	**Unit cost**	**# of sets**	**Total**
Complete set of twelve modules	$75.00	_____	_____
		Ten percent shipping/handling charge	_____
		TOTAL	_____

PURCHASE ORDER #: _____

ORDERS LESS THAN $30.00 MUST BE PREPAID.

SHIP TO:

NAME: _____

ADDRESS: _____

_____

_____

PHONE: ( ) _____

BILL TO:

NAME: _____

ADDRESS: _____

_____

_____

PHONE: ( ) _____

Please make check or money order payable to:

INTERCULTURAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH ASSOCIATION

Suite 350 • 5835 Callaghan Rd. • San Antonio, TX 78228 • (512) 684-8180

Race Desegregation -- Gender Equity -- National Origin Desegregation

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE MODULES

Federal Satutes and Directives Regarding National Origin Students will familiarize participants with the legal aspects of providing services to limited English proficient (LEP) students.

Federal Statutes and Directives Regarding Title IX Compliance will familiarize participants with the legal aspects of sex discrimination under Title IX compliance. pp 48

Civil Rights Compliance: An Update will familiarize participants with the legal intent, the procedural requirements, and the employment practice requirements contained in Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. pp 65

TRAINING MODULES

I ***First and Second Language Acquisition Processes*** will familiarize participants with the processes a non-English-speaking student goes through as he/she acquires English as a second language. pp 43

II ***Integrating the ESL Student into the Content Area Classroom*** will familiarize participants with classroom management theory and strategies that integrate the ESL student successfully into the content area classroom. pp 46

III ***Recognizing Cultural Differences in the Classroom*** will familiarize participants with cultural elements that some national origin minority populations may bring to the school environment. pp. 45

IV ***Sex Stereotyping and Bias: Their Origin and Effects*** will assist participants in identifying sources and effects of sex stereotyping and bias, in the classroom setting and in society as a whole. pp 52

V ***Modeling Equitable Behavior in the Classroom*** will assist participants in identifying and practicing classroom behaviors and language patterns that are free of gender stereotyping and bias. pp 53

VI ***Avoiding Sex Bias in Counseling*** will allow counselors the opportunity to review concepts and strategies that can be used to provide students with sex-fair guidance.

VII ***Equity in Counseling and Advising Students: Keeping Options Open*** will provide participants with cross-cultural counseling practices that can be used when working with culturally diverse populations. pp 45

VIII ***Interpersonal Communications: A Human Relations Practicum*** will provide participants with information on the skills which establish foundations for effective interpersonal communication. pp. 65

IX ***It's A Matter of Race: Race Relations in the Desegregated Setting*** will familiarize the participants with key issues regarding interpersonal race relationships in the desegregated setting, and offers suggestions on how to handle these relationships effectively. pp. 69

This module is one of a twelve-part series.
Each title is available at a cost of $7.50.
The entire series is available at a cost of $75.00.

The series consists of:

Technical Assistance Modules

Federal Statutes and Directives Regarding National Origin Students

Federal Statutes and Directives Regarding Title IX Compliance

Civil Rights Compliance: An Update

Training Modules

I First and Second Language Acquisition Processes
II Integrating the ESL Student into the Content Area Classroom
III Recognizing Cultural Differences in the Classroom
IV Sex Stereotyping and Bias: Their Origin and Effects
V Modeling Equitable Behavior in the Classroom
VI Avoiding Sex Bias in Counseling
VII Equity in Counseling and Advising Students: Keeping Options Open
VIII Interpersonal Communications: A Human Relations Practicum
IX It's a Matter of Race: Race Relations in the Desegregated Setting

•••

Desegregation Assistance Center - South Central Collaborative

Intercultural Development Research Association
5835 Callaghan Rd. • Suite 350 • San Antonio, TX 78228 • (512) 684-8180